

# The Behavior of Radiogenic Particles at Solidification Fronts

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The thermal behavior of insoluble radiogenic particles at the solid-liquid interface of an advancing solidification front and its significance with regard to environmental impact are discussed. It is shown that, unlike classical particles, where the most probable behavior is engulfing by the solidification front, radiogenic particles are more likely to be rejected by the solidification front. Utilizing a simplified physical model, an adaptation of classical theoretical models is performed, where it is shown that, unlike classical particles, for radiogenic particles the mechanism is thermally driven. An analytical expression for the critical velocity of the solidification front for engulfing/rejection to occur is derived. The study could be potentially important to several fields, e.g. in engineering applications where technological processes for the physical removal of radionuclide particles dispersed throughout another substance by inducing solidification could be envisaged, in planetary science where the occurrence of radiogenic concentration could result in the possibility of the eruption of primordial comet/planetoids, or, if specific conditions are suitable, particle ejection may result in an increase in concentration as the front moves, which can translate into the formation of hot spots.

**Keywords.** *Radiogenic particles, solidification, planetary science*

## I. INTRODUCTION

To date the study of particle behavior at solidification fronts has been of practical importance in several different areas of science, for example: biological, soil, food and metallurgy. Unfortunately, despite the abundant available literature, see for example (Li et al., 2010), there are no studies about the behavior of radiogenic particles. Such particles act as heat sources, and thus the topic requires theoretical development.

In this paper, a theoretical model for the behavior of particles at freezing fronts, but adapted to account for the heat source from radiogenic particles, is assessed. The theoretical model, although a simplified one, allows us to gain a first insight into the impact of the perturbed temperature profile surrounding radiogenic particles on the critical velocity which determines the likelihood of their being either engulfed or ejected by the solidification front. This should not be misconstrued as an attempt to produce a definitive mechanistic model of the behavior of such particles at solidification fronts; here only thermal effects are considered. Nonetheless, we feel that it is appropriate to start to air the topic in view of the lack of underpinning theory, as far as the authors are aware, and thus to encourage more thorough research of the subject.

## II. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The behavior of particles at solidification fronts has been extensively researched over several decades, and multiple aspects analyzed: see (Lipp et al., 1992; Coupard et al., 1996; Rempel and Worster, 1999; Garvin and Udaykumar, 2004; Garvin et al., 2007; Agaliotis et al., 2012; Kintea et al., 2016), just to name a few. A comprehensive review can be found in (Li et al., 2010). In this paper, by radiogenic particles we mean entities having diameters of between 0.1 and 10 micrometers. Such particles in rivers or lakes, with typical fluid velocities of less than a centimeter per second, have very low Stokes numbers ( $St \ll 1$ ) and thus they follow fluid streamlines closely (perfect advection), i.e. they will not settle due to gravity. These radionuclides particles are known to occur in the environment by: mechanical disruption, pulverization and dispersion of the original bulk of radioactive material; condensed aggregates formed upon condensation of volatile radionuclides; discrete radioactive particles or clusters formed within the fuel during normal operations (IAEA, 2011).

To introduce the theory of the behavior of particles at solidification fronts, Fig. 1 shows a schematic representation of the two possibilities that can occur, depending on the velocity of solidification of the solidification front (Li et al., 2010). Referring to this figure, it can be seen that the behavior is not trivial. When the solidification front approaches a particle, the particle can be rejected or engulfed by the front. The behavior will depend on the velocity of the solidification front  $V$ . If the solidification front moves with a velocity lower than a certain

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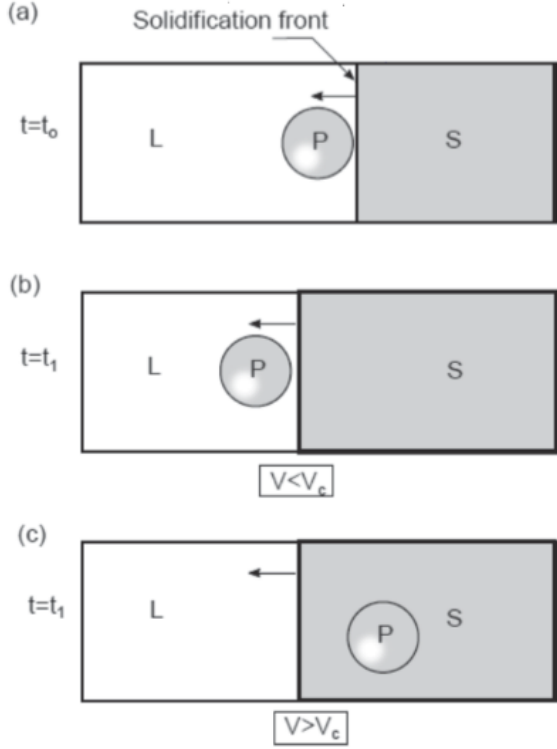


FIG. 1: Schematics of the behavior of a particle at a solidification front moving from right to left [courtesy of (Li et al., 2010)].

velocity called the critical velocity  $V_c$ , the particle will be rejected or pushed ahead of the front. However, if the solidification front moves with a velocity greater than  $V_c$ , the particle will be engulfed.

The critical velocity at which continuous rejection of particles occurs is given by (Li et al., 2010):

$$V_c = \frac{A_h(1-\nu)}{36\pi\mu Rl_o} \quad (1)$$

where  $A_h$  is the Hamaker coefficient,  $\nu$  is the ratio of the particle radius to the radius of curvature of the concave solid-liquid interface,  $\mu$  is the liquid viscosity,  $R$  is the radius of the particle, and  $l_o$  is the minimum separation distance between the particle and the solid. The minimum separation distance for small particles is given by:

$$l_o = 1.3 \left[ \frac{A_h R}{12\pi\gamma} \right]^{\frac{1}{3}} \quad (2)$$

where  $\gamma$  is the interface surface tension. Therefore, Eq. (1) may be rewritten as:

$$V_c = 0.049 \left[ \frac{\gamma A_h^2}{\pi^2 R^4} \right]^{\frac{1}{3}} \frac{(1-\nu)}{\mu} \quad (3)$$

If the solidification front is perfectly flat,  $1-\nu \simeq 1$  and

Eq. (3) simplifies to:

$$V_c = 0.049 \left[ \frac{\gamma A_h^2}{\pi^2 R^4} \right]^{\frac{1}{3}} \frac{1}{\mu} \quad (4)$$

However, it was found that the relative interface concavity is dependent upon the relative values of the thermal conductivities of the particle and the matrix material (Chernov et al., 1976), and the drag on a particle being pushed by a solidification front and its dependence on thermal conductivities was studied by (Garvin and Udaykumar, 2004). It was found that the concavity term is related to thermal conductivities by:

$$1-\nu = \frac{\kappa_p}{\kappa_l} \quad (5)$$

where  $\kappa_p$  and  $\kappa_l$  are the thermal conductivities of the particle and the liquid, respectively. Thus, inserting Eq. (5) into Eq. (3) one obtains:

$$V_c = 0.049 \left[ \frac{\gamma A_h^2}{\pi^2 R^4} \right]^{\frac{1}{3}} \frac{1}{\mu} \frac{\kappa_p}{\kappa_l} \quad (6)$$

As is readily apparent, the effect of the relative thermal conductivities could be very important in the rejection/engulfing process in increasing or decreasing the critical velocity for rejection by an order of magnitude. For example, the value of  $\kappa_{\text{ceramic}}/\kappa_{\text{water}}$  is around 10 (e.g.  $\kappa_{\text{C}}/\kappa_{\text{water}} = 10.2$  or  $\kappa_{\text{TiO}_2}/\kappa_{\text{water}} = 12.3$ ), while the ratio is around 1 for systems like mica/water (e.g.  $\kappa_{\text{mica}}/\kappa_{\text{water}} = 0.92$  or  $\kappa_{\text{glass}}/\kappa_{\text{water}} = 1.25$ ) (Agalotis et al., 2012)

The solid-liquid interface temperature is given by:

$$T_i = T_m - \left( \frac{\lambda}{d} \right)^3 T_m \quad (7)$$

and defining the difference in temperature between the front and the particle as  $\Delta T_c = T_m - T_i$ :

$$\Delta T_c = \left( \frac{\lambda}{d} \right)^3 T_m \quad (8)$$

where  $T_m$  is the temperature at the solidification front,  $d$  is the thickness of the liquid-film interface, and  $\lambda$  is a length scale proportional to the interaction strength (Rempel and Worster, 1999).

### III. THE RADIOGENIC EFFECT

The preceding theory, however, ignores heat sources, and the particle and the surrounding liquid are taken to be at the same temperature. For radiogenic particles, this assumption is no longer appropriate. The heat released in the decay of the radiogenic particle distorts the temperature profile of the local liquid and thus will affect the critical velocity, as we will immediately see below.

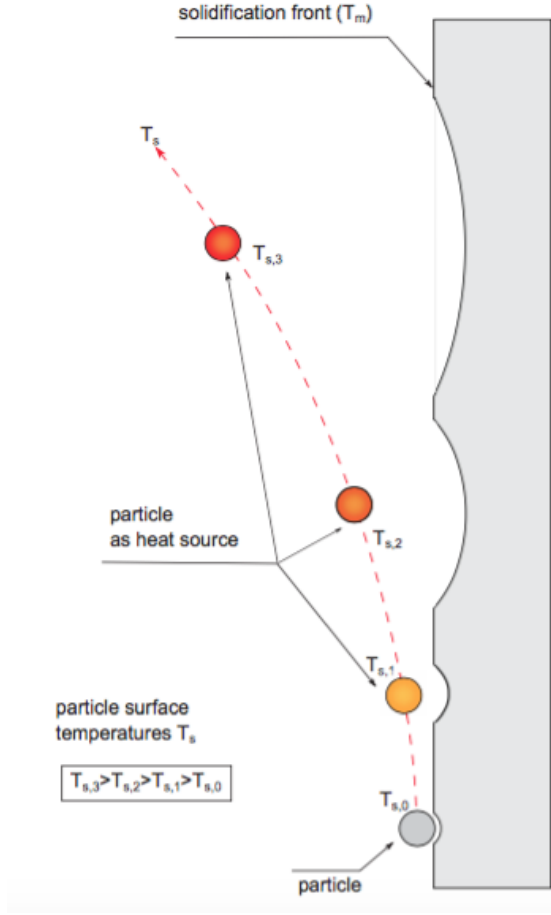


FIG. 2: The effect of the surface temperature of the particle on the solid-interface concavity.

First and foremost, the most important direct effect of the particle heat source on the calculated critical velocity is on the solid-liquid interface concavity  $1 - \nu$ .

As can be envisaged by looking at Fig. 2, it is expected that the solid-liquid interface will become less concave (i.e.  $[1 - \nu] \rightarrow 1$ ) as the temperature of the particle increases, and, then according to the accepted theory, this will result in a higher critical velocity. Therefore, the assumption of a flat solidification front, as depicted in Fig. 1, is also untenable, as the temperature profile is now locally distorting the shape of the solidification front.

The modified situation when considering a radiogenic particle as a heat source is now as given in Fig. 3.

Referring to Fig. 3, the curvature of the solidification front is disturbed by the heat from the radiogenic particle, and its profile is defined by the temperature difference between the surface of the radiogenic particle, let us denote this  $T_s$ , and the temperature at the solidification front  $T_m$ .

For the sake of simplicity, let us consider a spherical particle. Assume a heat flux  $q_p$  at the particle surface, i.e. at  $r = R$ , (a Neumann boundary condition), while the specified temperature at the solidification front

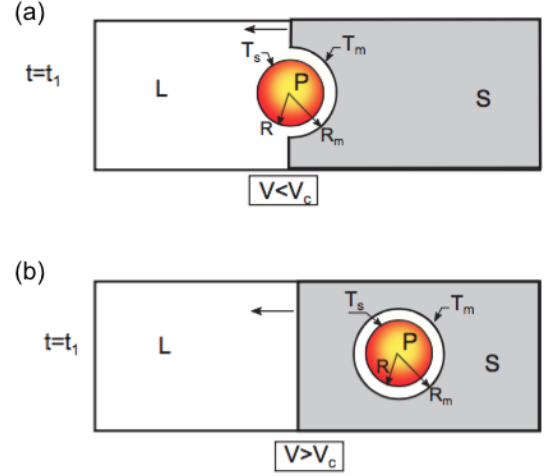


FIG. 3: Schematics of the behavior of a radiogenic particle at a solidification front moving from right to left.

is  $T_m$  when  $r = R_m$  (a Dirichlet boundary condition). With these boundary conditions, solving the heat conduction equation in spherical coordinates with azimuthal and poloidal symmetry for the steady-state case, one obtains the following expression for  $T_s$ , the temperature at the surface of the particle:

$$T_s = \frac{q_p R^2}{\kappa_l} \left( \frac{1}{R} - \frac{1}{R_m} \right) + T_m \quad (9)$$

The rate of heat production per unit volume,  $Q_p$ , in a radiogenic particle, for the simple case of a single radioactive component decaying to a stable daughter product, is given by:

$$Q_p = B_p \rho_p e_d \quad (10)$$

where  $B_p$  is the specific activity of particle (Bq/kg),  $\rho_p$  its density and  $e_d$  the decay energy. In steady state:

$$\frac{4}{3} \pi R^3 Q_p = 4 \pi R^2 q_p \quad (11)$$

Using Eqs. (10) and (11), Eq. (9) can be rearranged to give:

$$\frac{1}{3} R^3 B_p \rho_p e_d = \kappa_l \Delta T \left[ \frac{R}{1 - \frac{R}{R_m}} \right] \quad (12)$$

where  $\Delta T = T_s - T_m$  is the temperature difference between the particle surface at  $r = R$  and the solidification front at  $r = R_m$ . Thus, the parameter  $1 - \nu = 1 - \frac{R}{R_m}$  is, for this case, thermally controlled, and is given by:

$$1 - \nu = \frac{3 \kappa_l \Delta T}{R^2 B_p \rho_p e_d} \quad (13)$$

Substituting in Eq. (3), the expression for the critical velocity is then:

$$V_c^t = 0.049 \left[ \frac{\gamma A_h^2}{\pi^2 R^4} \right]^{\frac{1}{3}} \frac{1}{\mu} \frac{3 \kappa_l \Delta T}{R^2 B_p \rho_p e_d} \quad (14)$$

where the superscript  $t$  indicates that the process is thermally controlled to differentiate it from the classical critical velocity (without heat source) expression in Eq. (6). Dividing Eq. (14) by Eq. (6) one obtains:

$$\frac{V_c^t}{V_c} = 3 \frac{\kappa_l^2}{\kappa_p} \frac{\Delta T}{R^2 B_p \rho_p e_d} \quad (15)$$

The thermal conductivities of the particle as well as the liquid can be assumed to be constant. The only parameters which are unknown are the heat source and the  $\Delta T$ . However, they can be connected by considering a simple energy balance. In fact, the surface heat flux of the particle is given by (Turcotte and Schubert, 2014):

$$q_p = \frac{1}{3} R B_p \rho_p e_d \quad (16)$$

The above equation is easily derived by combining Eqs. (10) and (11).

On the other hand, the surface heat flux is given by:

$$q_p = h_l \Delta T \quad (17)$$

where  $h_l$  is the heat transfer coefficient of the liquid. Combining Eq. (17) with Eq. (16), one obtains:

$$\frac{1}{h_l} = \frac{3 \Delta T}{R B_p \rho_p e_d} \quad (18)$$

and inserting Eq. (18) into Eq. (15) yields:

$$\frac{V_c^t}{V_c} = \frac{\kappa_l^2}{\kappa_p} \frac{1}{R h_l} \quad (19)$$

The heat transfer coefficient for a specific system can be evaluated with its specific Reynolds number  $\mathbf{Re}$  as  $h_l \simeq a \mathbf{Re}^n$ , where  $\mathbf{Re} = \frac{U L}{\nu_l}$  where  $U$ ,  $L$  and  $\nu_l$  are the velocity, length scale and kinematic viscosity of the liquid, respectively. For most cases,  $a \sim 0.023$  and  $n \sim 0.8$ , being identically equal for the Dittus-Boelter correlation.

In application to ice covered lakes, we have (Matti, 2015):  $U \sim 10^{-3}$  m/s, the kinematic viscosity of water  $\nu_l \approx 1.8 \times 10^{-6}$  m<sup>2</sup>/s and  $L \sim 1$ –10 m, resulting in a Reynolds number of  $\mathbf{Re} \sim 5500$  and a heat transfer coefficient  $\sim 22$  W m<sup>-2</sup>K<sup>-1</sup>. Therefore, with the size of particles with which we are dealing ( $\sim$  a few micrometers), a radiogenic particle is more likely to be rejected rather than engulfed by the front of solidification.

The strong dependence on the radius of the particle should be noted. Even accepting that the discussed result is based in entirely thermal considerations and other possible effects, such as ionization, electrostatic charges, etc., are not being considered, nevertheless the model provides a physical picture of the behavior that would be observed if only thermal effects were present. So, if such an effect is not observed in a particular experiment, this could indicate the presence of other forces to be considered.

Finally, it is important to stress that Eq. (19) assumes that the difference in temperature  $\Delta T$  is not identically

zero, and, in fact, is higher than the difference in temperature given by the classical model without heat sources (Eq. (8)). So, we can get an idea of the strength of the thermal effect by comparing both temperatures differences as follows:

First, the specific activity may be expressed as a function of the half-life and molar mass of the radioisotope as:

$$B_p = \frac{N_A \ln 2}{\bar{M} t_{1/2}} \quad (20)$$

where  $N_A$  is the Avogadro number,  $\bar{M}$  is the molar mass, and  $t_{1/2}$  the half-life. From Eq. (18) we therefore have:

$$\Delta T = \frac{N_A \rho_p e_d R \ln 2}{3 \bar{M} h_l t_{1/2}} \quad (21)$$

The difference in temperature without heat sources (classical particles) is given by Eq. (7). The interaction strength length  $\lambda$  is generally much greater than the molecular diameter of water. Under typical conditions  $\lambda \approx 10^{-4}$   $\mu$ m, and  $l \approx 10^{-2}$   $\mu$ m (Rempel and Worster, 1999), and taking  $T_m \approx 300$  K, we obtain  $\Delta T_c \approx 10^{-4}$  K.

We may define a thermal strength factor  $\Gamma$  as the ratio of the differences in temperature given by Eqs. (21) and (8):

$$\Gamma = \frac{\Delta T}{\Delta T_c} \quad (22)$$

which provides us with an idea of when the heat from the radiogenic particle begins to be important.

Although the  $\Delta T$  given by Eq. (21) must be evaluated for the specific radioisotope, the most significant effect is due to the half-life  $t_{1/2}$ . In fact, densities could vary by as much as a factor 3, the energy of decay is in the order of 1 MeV to 5 MeV, and the molar mass may also vary by a factor 10 or so. For the sake of illustration, we take some average values of several parameters of radiogenic particles assuming:  $\rho_p \sim 4000$  kg/m<sup>3</sup>;  $e_d \sim 2.5$  MeV;  $\bar{M} \sim 200$  g/mol, and  $h_l \sim 22$  W m<sup>-2</sup>K<sup>-1</sup>. The resulting curve for the parameter  $\Gamma$ , for a particle radius of around 5  $\mu$ m, is shown in Fig. 4. It is readily apparent that, for particles with  $t_{1/2} < 10^4$  years, the heat from the radiogenic source begins to be important.

#### A. Electrostatically charged particles and ions

It is important to highlight that in the preceding study only the thermal impact of general radiogenic particles has been considered, and they were assumed to be neutral particles (i.e. to have no net electrical charge). However, it should be noted that radiogenic particles could be either electrostatically charged (mostly positively charged) or could cause the formation of ions.

In the former case, electrostatic forces induced between the surface particle and the solidification front can be

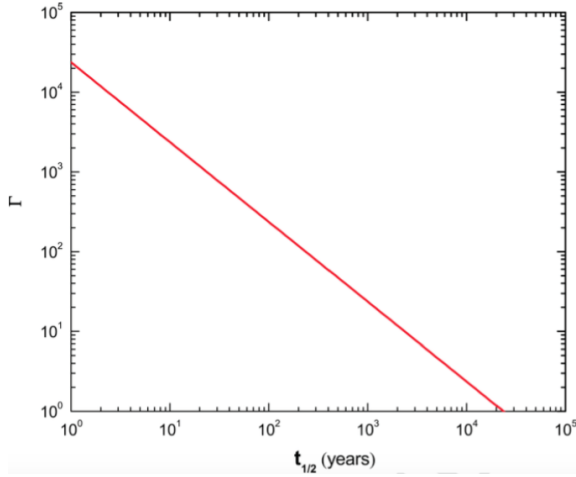


FIG. 4:  $\Gamma$  as function of half-life  $t_{1/2}$  for the generic parameters assumed.

stronger than adhesive dipolar forces, and then whether the particle is rejected or engulfed will depend on whether the induced electrostatic field between the particle and the solidification front surface is repulsive or attractive.

In the latter case, i.e. if the radiogenic particle ionizes its neighborhood, according to classical theory on the effect of ions on the solidification process, a local freezing point depression, in which ions decrease the freezing point of the liquid, could be expected, and then the solid-liquid interface becomes less concave, resulting in a higher critical velocity.

Additional R&D is required in order to assess the behavior of solidification fronts affected by self-induced electrostatic fields and/or local ionization of the film between particle and solidification front.

#### IV. SUMMARY OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The theory of the behavior of particles at solidification fronts has been revised to account for radioactive particles as heat sources. Some interesting questions are raised by this study:

- (a) The motion of radiogenic particles at solidification fronts is a thermally controlled process, where the most probable outcome seems to be the rejection of radiogenic particles.
- (b) As a result of the rejection of radiogenic particles, there will be an accumulation of radiogenic material at the solidification front.
- (c) An analytical expression, Eq. (15), is derived for the critical velocity of engulfing, where the classical expression is modified by the thermal perturbation of the radiogenic particle, which distorts the shape of the solidification front as well as the distance between particle and front.

#### NOMENCLATURE

$A_h$  = Hamaker coefficient  
 $B_p$  = specific activity of radiogenic particle (Bq/kg)  
 $d$  = thickness of the liquid-film interface  
 $e_d$  = energy released per disintegration  
 $h_l$  = heat transfer coefficient of liquid  
 $l_o$  = minimum separation distance between particle and solidification front  
 $\bar{M}$  = molar mass  
 $N_A$  = the Avogadro number  
 $q_p$  = heat flux at the particle surface  
 $Q_p$  = particle heat generation rate  
 $r$  = transverse distance from the solidification front  
 $R$  = radius of the radiogenic particle  
 $R_m$  = distance of the solidification front from the center of the radiogenic particle  
 $Re$  = Reynolds number  
 $Stk$  = Stokes number  
 $t$  = time  
 $t_{1/2}$  = half-life of radiogenic particle  
 $T$  = temperature  
 $T_m$  = solidification front temperature  
 $T_o$  = environmental temperature  
 $T_s$  = temperature of particle surface  
 $\Delta T$  = temperature difference between solidification front and particle  
 $v_p$  = velocity of solidification  
 $V_c$  = critical velocity for engulfing

#### Greek symbols

$\gamma$  = surface tension  
 $\Gamma$  = thermal strength factor  
 $\kappa$  = thermal conductivity  
 $\lambda$  = length scale  
 $\lambda$  = decay constant  
 $\mu$  = dynamic viscosity of the liquid  
 $\nu$  = kinematic viscosity  
 $\nu$  = ratio of particle radius to the radius of curvature of the concave solid-liquid interface  
 $\rho$  = density

#### Subscripts

$c$  = critical  
 $l$  = liquid  
 $p$  = particle

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